



J.B. INSTITUTE OF ENGINEERING AND TECHNOLOGY

(UGC AUTONOMOUS)

Bhaskar Nagar, Moinabad Mandal, R.R. District, Hyderabad -500075

DEPARTMENT OF CIVIL ENGINEERING

Engineering Geology

LECTURE NOTESR18

B. TECH

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UNIT-I

ENGINEERING GEOLOGY

Definition:-

- a. The science which deals with the physical structure and substance of the earth, their history, and the processes which act on them.
- b. The geological features of a district.
- c. The geological features of a planetary body.

The importance of geology in civil engineering may briefly as follows:

- a. Geology provides a systematic knowledge of construction material, its occurrence, composition, durability and other properties. Example of such construction materials is building stones, road metal, clay, limestones and laterite.
- b. The knowledge of the geological work of natural agencies such as water, wind, ice and earthquakes helps in planning and carrying out major civil engineering works. For example the knowledge of erosion, transportation and deposition helps greatly in solving the expensive problems of river control, coastal and soil conservation.
- c. Ground water is the water which occurs in the subsurface rocks. The knowledge about its quantity and depth of occurrence is required in connection with water supply, irrigation, excavation and many other civil engineering works.
- d. The foundation problems of dams, bridges and buildings are directly concerned with the geology of the area where they are to be built. In these works drilling is commonly undertaken to explore the ground conditions. Geology helps greatly in interpreting the drilling data.
- e. In tunneling, constructing roads, canals, docks and in determining the stability of cuts and slopes, the knowledge about the nature and structure of rocks is very necessary.
- f. Before starting a major engineering project at a place, a detailed geological report which is accompanied by geological maps and sections, is prepared. Such a report helps in planning and constructing the projects.

Physical Geology:

- a. Physical Geology uses the scientific method to explain natural aspects of the Earth - for example, how mountains form or why oil resources are concentrated in some rocks and not in others.
- b. This chapter briefly explains how and why Earth's surface, and its interior, is constantly changing. It relates this constant change to the major geological topics of interaction of the atmosphere, water and rock.

Petrology:-

- a. Petrology is the branch of geology that studies the origin, composition, distribution and structure of rocks.

(from the Greek language : petra-"rock" and logos- "study")

- b. "Lithology" was once approximately synonymous with petrography, but in current usage, lithology focuses on macroscopic hand-sample or outcrop-scale description of rocks while petrography is the specialty that deals with microscopic details.

Branches:

There are three branches of petrology, corresponding to the three types of rocks:

- a. Igneous, metamorphic, and sedimentary.
 1. Igneous petrology focuses on the composition and texture of igneous rocks (rocks such as granite or basalt which have crystallized from Molten rock or magma).
Igneous rocks include volcanic and plutonic rocks.
 2. Sedimentary petrology focuses on the composition and texture of sedimentary rocks (rocks such as sandstone, shale).

3. Metamorphic petrology focuses on the composition and texture of metamorphic rocks such as slate, marble, gneiss, or schist which started out as sedimentary or igneous rocks but which have undergone chemical, mineralogical or textural changes due to extremes of pressure, temperature or both).
4. Metamorphic rocks arise from the transformation of existing rock types, in a process called metamorphism, which means "change in form". The original rock (protolith) is subjected to heat (temperatures greater than 150 to 200 °C) causing profound physical and/or chemical change.

Structural geology:

- b. Structural geology is the study of the three-dimensional distribution of rock units with respect to their deformational histories.
- c. The primary goal of structural geology is to use measurements of present-day rock geometries to uncover information about the history of deformation (strain) in the rocks, and ultimately, to understand the stress field that resulted in the observed strain and geometries.

Weathering of Rocks:

- a. Weathering breaks down and loosens the surface minerals of rock so they can be transported away by agents of erosion such as water, wind and ice.
 - b. There are two types of weathering: mechanical and chemical.
 1. Mechanical or physical weathering involves the breakdown of rocks and soils through direct contact with atmospheric conditions, such as heat, water, ice and pressure.
 2. The second classification, chemical weathering involves the direct effect of atmospheric chemicals or biologically produced chemicals also known as biological weathering in the breakdown of rocks, soils and minerals.
-

MINERALOGY

Introduction:

- A mineral is a naturally occurring substance that is solid and inorganic represent able by a chemical formula, and has an ordered atomic structure.
- Minerals are broadly grouped into
 - a) The rock forming minerals and
 - b) Ore-forming minerals

In civil engineering practice, it is important to have knowledge of the important rock- forming types.

The ore-forming minerals are to be understood in detail by the mining, Metallurgical and Mineral Engineering professionals.

- The study of minerals is called mineralogy.
- There are over 4,900 known mineral species; over 4,660 of these have been approved by the International Mineralogical Association (IMA).
- The silicate minerals compose over 90% of the Earth's crust.
- Minerals are distinguished by various chemical and physical properties.

Formation of minerals:

- Minerals are crystalline solid substances, meaning the atoms making up a mineral are arranged in an ordered, three-dimensional, structure.
- The distances and angles between an individual atom and the neighbors it is bonded to are constant.
- The process of mineral formation is known as crystallization. In order for a mineral to crystallize, ions from the nearby environment must be brought together.

- A second process of mineral formation occurs during cooling of a melt.
- When crystallization of this type takes place in water, we call it freezing.
- Through a very similar mechanism, molten rock-forming liquids, known as magmas and lavas, cool and crystallize to form minerals and thus rocks.

Study of minerals:

- **Mineralogy** is a subject of geology specializing in the scientific study of chemistry, crystal structure, and physical (including optical) properties of minerals.
- Specific studies within mineralogy include the processes of mineral origin and formation, classification of minerals, their geographical distribution, as well as their utilization.
- As of 2004 there are over 4,000 species of minerals recognized by the IMA. Of these, perhaps 150 can be called "common," another 50 are "occasional," and the rest are "rare" to "extremely rare."

Physical properties:

- The physical characteristics of minerals include traits which are used to identify and describe mineral species. These traits include color, streak, luster, density, hardness, cleavage, fracture, tenacity, and crystal
- | | |
|------------|-----------|
| • Color | .Cleavage |
| • Streak | .Fracture |
| • Luster | .Tenacity |
| • Density | .Habit |
| • Hardness | |

UNIT-II

PETROLOGY

Definition of rock:

- a. In geology, **rock** is a naturally occurring solid aggregate of one or more minerals or mineraloids.
- b. For example, the common rock granite is a combination of
 - I. the quartz, feldspar and biotite minerals. The Earth's outer solid layer, the lithosphere, is made of rock.
- c. Rocks have been used by mankind throughout history. From the Stone Age, rocks have been used for tools. The minerals and metals found in rocks have been essential to human civilization.
- d. Three major groups of rocks are defined: Igneous, Sedimentary, and Metamorphic. The scientific study of rocks is called **petrology**.

Crystallization:

- a. **Crystallization** is also a chemical solid–liquid separation technique, in which mass transfer of a solute from the liquid solution to a pure solid crystalline phase occurs.
- b. In chemical engineering **crystallization** occurs in a crystallizer.

Dykes and sills:

- Dyke” and “sill” are geological terms used to describe an intrusion; usually a mass of igneous or volcanic rocks that forcibly entered, penetrated, and embedded into layers of another rock or land form. Dykes and sills are often.

- A **dike** or **dyke** in geological usage is a sheet of rock that formed in a fracture in a pre-existing rock body.
- However, when the new rock forms within and parallel to the bedding of a layers rock, it is called a **sill**.
- It is a type of tabular or sheet intrusion, that either cuts across layers in a planar wall rock structures, or into a layer or unlayered mass of rock.

Structure and texture of igneous rocks:

- The texture of igneous rocks depends on the composition of the magma and the conditions surrounding the magma's cooling.
- The textures are different in intrusive, vein, and extrusive rocks. Intrusive rocks are characterized by

holocrystalline texture, in which all the rock material is crystallized.
- Also depends on the shape of the crystals of the component minerals.

Structure and texture of Sedimentary rocks:

- The relationship between rock structure and texture and rock genesis is more pronounced in sedimentary rocks than in igneous rocks.
- Clastic rocks consist of detrital (clastic) grains of various sizes and shapes.
- The grains, which can be angular, subrounded, or rounded, sometimes lie freely without attachment.
- The structure of clastic rock, which depends on the mutual arrangement of the grains, can be random, laminar, or fluidal. With a random structure, the particles do not have an ordered arrangement.

Properties of rocks and Minerals:

	Physical Properties of Calcite
Chemical Classification	carbonate
Color	usually white but also colorless, gray, red, green, blue, yellow, brown, orange
Streak	white
Luster	vitreous
Diaphaneity	transparent to translucent
Cleavage	perfect, rhombohedral, three directions
Mohs Hardness	3
Specific Gravity	2.7
Diagnostic Properties	rhombohedral cleavage, powdered form effervesces weakly in dilute HCl, curved crystal faces and frequent twinning
Chemical Composition	CaCO_3
Crystal System	hexagonal
Uses	acid neutralization, a low hardness abrasive, soil conditioner, heated for the production of lime

Physical Properties of Hematite

Chemical

Classification

oxide

Color	black to steel-gray to silver; red to reddish brown to black
Streak	red to reddish brown
Luster	metallic, submetallic, earthy
Diaphaneity	Opaque
Cleavage	None
Mohs Hardness	5 to 6 ½
Specific Gravity	5.0 to 5.3
Diagnostic Properties	red streak, specific gravity
Chemical Composition	Fe ₂ O ₃
Crystal System	trigonal
Uses	the most important ore of iron, pigment, heavy media separation, radiation shielding, ballast, polishing compounds, a minor gemstone

Physical Properties of Quartz

Chemical Classification	silicate
Color	Quartz occurs in virtually every color. Common colors are clear, white, gray, purple, yellow, brown, black, pink, green, red.
Streak	colorless (harder than the streak plate)
Luster	vitreous
Diaphaneity	transparent to translucent
Cleavage	none - typically breaks with a conchoidal fracture

Mohs Hardness	7
Specific Gravity	2.6 to 2.7
Diagnostic Properties	conchoidal fracture, glassy luster, hardness
Chemical Composition	SiO ₂
Crystal System	hexagonal
Uses	glass making, abrasive, foundry sand, hydraulic fracturing proppant, gemstones

Physical Properties of Chromite	
Chemical Classification	oxide
Color	dark gray to black, rarely brownish black
Streak	dark brown
Luster	metallic to submetallic
Diaphaneity	opaque
Cleavage	none
Mohs Hardness	5.5 to 6
Specific Gravity	4.0 to 5.1 (variable)
Diagnostic Properties	luster, streak
Chemical Composition	FeCr ₂ O ₄ with magnesium substituting for iron in significant amounts
Crystal System	isometric
Uses	an ore of chromium

	Physical Properties of Fluorite
Chemical Classification	halide
Color	typically purple, green and yellow. Also colorless, blue, red and black.
Streak	white
Luster	vitreous
Diaphaneity	transparent to translucent
Cleavage	four directions of perfect cleavage
Mohs Hardness	4
Specific Gravity	3.2
Diagnostic Properties	cleavage, hardness, specific gravity, color
Chemical Composition	CaF ₂
Crystal System	isometric
Uses	Numerous uses in the metallurgical, ceramics and chemical industries. A source of fluorine, hydrofluoric acid, metallurgical flux. High clarity pieces are used to make lenses for microscopes, telescopes and cameras.

	Physical Properties of Pyrite
Chemical Classification	sulfide
Color	brass yellow - often tarnished to dull brass
Streak	greenish black to brownish black
Luster	metallic
Diaphaneity	opaque

Cleavage	breaks with a conchoidal fracture
Mohs Hardness	6 to 6.5
Specific Gravity	4.9 to 5.2
Diagnostic Properties	color, hardness, brittle, greenish black streak
Chemical Composition	iron sulfide, FeS ₂
Crystal System	isometric

Texture and structure of metamorphic rocks:

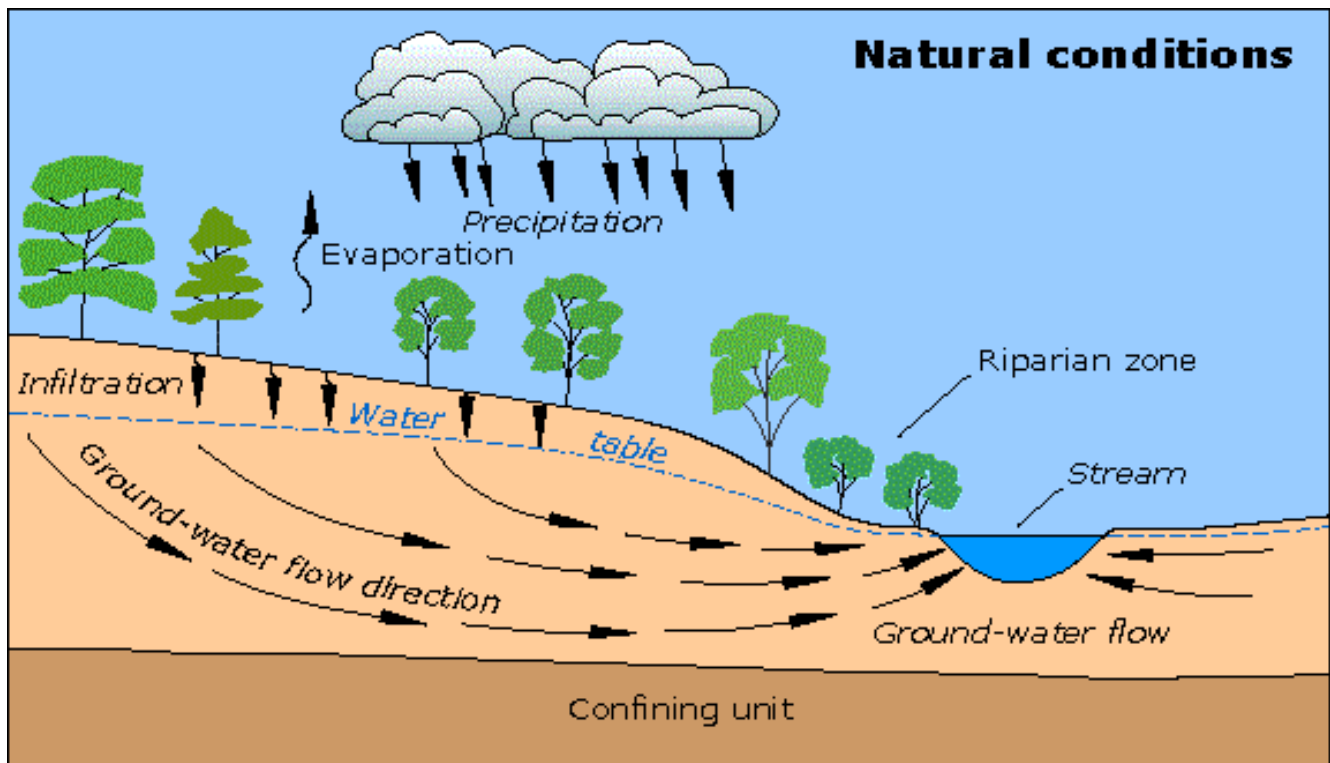
- The structures and textures of metamorphic rocks arise during the recrystallization in the solid state of primary sedimentary and magmatic rocks.
- The recrystallization occurs under the action of lithostatic pressure, temperature.
- Which leads to an ordered arrangement of the mineral Grains?



GROUND WATER

DEFINITION:

- **Groundwater** (or **ground water**) is the water present beneath Earth's surface in soil pore spaces and in the fractures of rock formations.
- A unit of rock or an unconsolidated deposit is called an aquifer when it can yield a usable quantity of water.
- The depth at which soil pore spaces or fractures and voids in rock become completely saturated with water is called the water table.



USES:

- Groundwater is also often withdrawn for agricultural, municipal, and industrial use by constructing and operating extraction wells.
- The study of the distribution and movement of groundwater is hydrogeology, also called **GROUNDWATER HYDROLOGY**.
- Groundwater is often cheaper, more convenient and less vulnerable to pollution than surface water.

SPRINGS:

- A **spring** is the result of an aquifer being filled to the point that the **water** overflows onto the land surface.
- They range in size from intermittent seeps, which flow only after much rain, to huge pools flowing hundreds of millions of gallons daily.

Types of springs:

- Seepage or filtration spring. The term seep refers to springs with small flow rates in which the source water has filtered through permeable earth.
- Fracture springs, discharge from faults, joints, or fissures in the earth, in which springs have followed a natural course of voids or weaknesses in the bedrock.

CONE OF DEPRESSION:

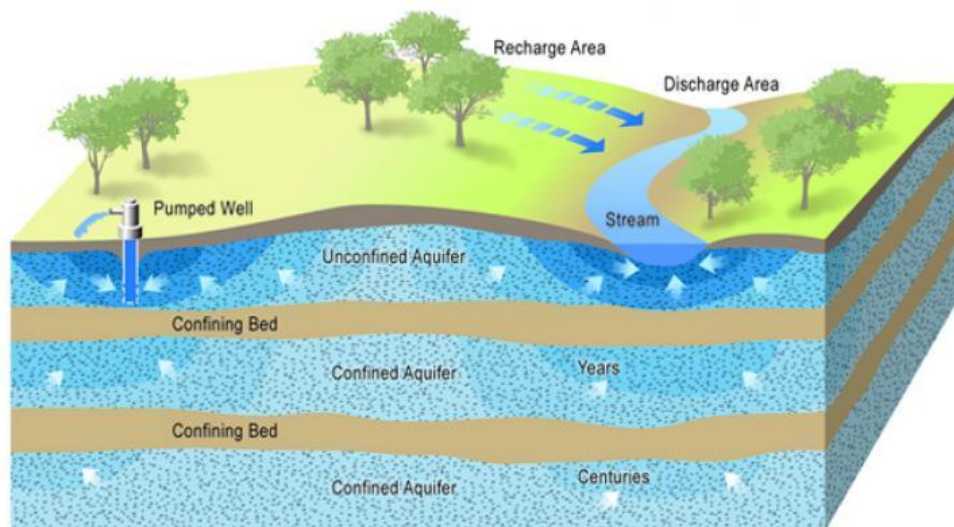
- A **cone of depression** occurs in from a an aquifer when groundwater is pumped aquifer well. In an unconfined depression of the(water table), this is an actual water levels.
- In confined aquifers (artesian), the cone of depression is a reduction in the pressure head surrounding the pumped well.

DIFFERENCE:

- The size and shape (slope) of the cone of depression depends on many factors. The pumping rate in the well will affect the size of the cone.
- Also, the type of aquifer material, such as whether the aquifer is sand, silt, fractured rocks etc., also will affect how far the cone extends.
- The amount of water in storage and the thickness of the aquifer also will determine the size and shape of the cone of depression.
- As a well is pumped, the cone of depression will extend out and will continue to expand in a radial fashion until a point of equilibrium occurs.
- This usually is when the amount of water released from storage equals the rate of pumping. This also can occur when recharge to the aquifer equals the amount of water being pumped.

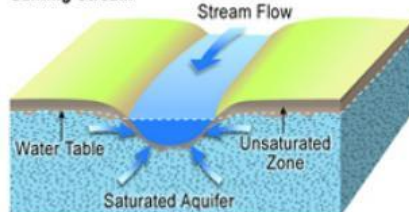
1. Confined aquifer

2. Unconfined aquifer



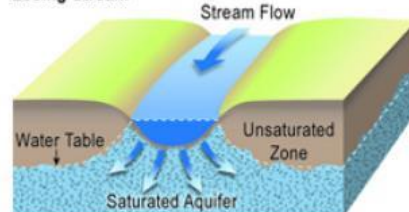
a

Gaining Stream



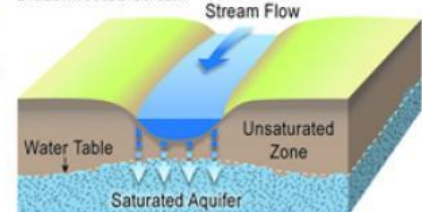
b

Losing Stream



c

Disconnected Stream

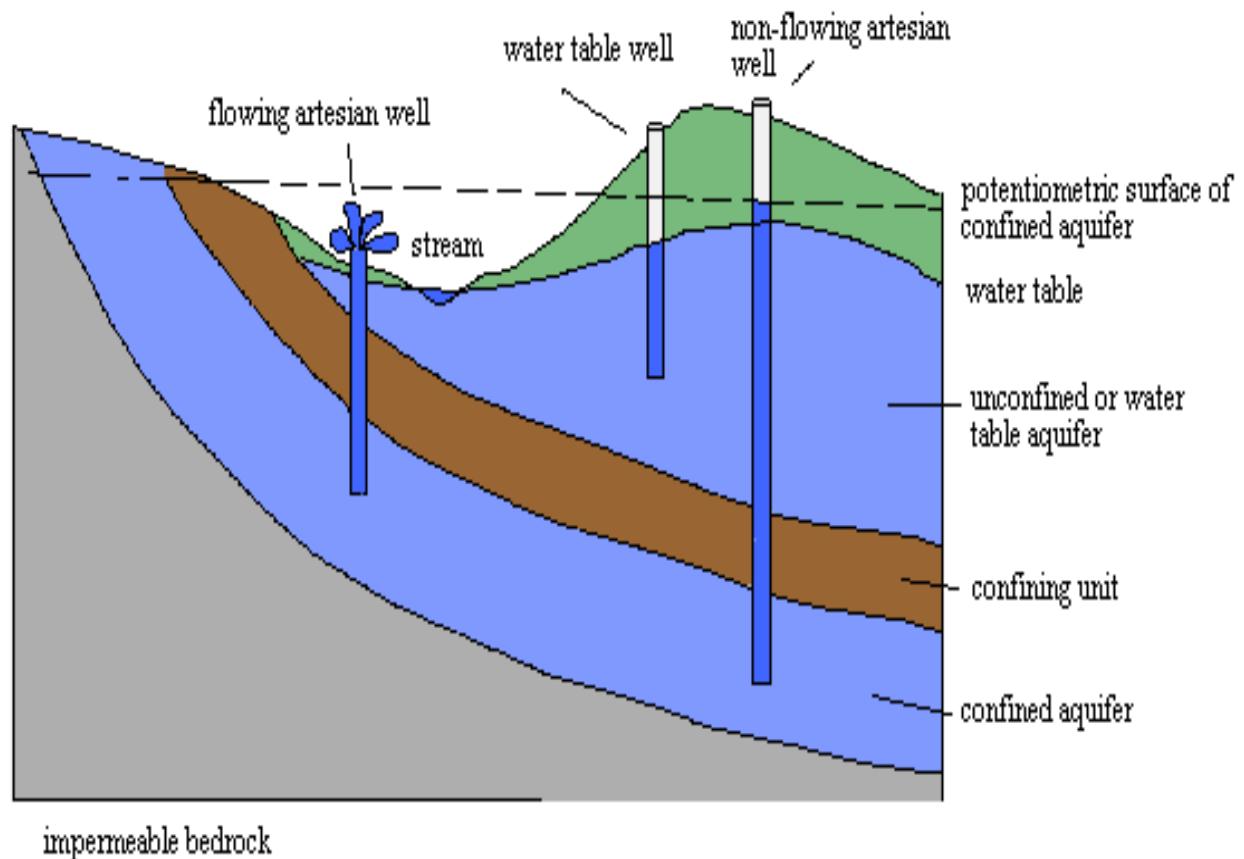


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AQUIFERS

What is an aquifer???

- An **aquifer** is an underground layer of water-bearing permeable rock or unconsolidated materials (gravel, sand, or silt) from which groundwater can be extracted using a water well.
- The study of water flow in **aquifers** and the characterization of **aquifers** is called hydrogeology.
- What is confining layer (aquitard)?
- Geological material through which significant quantities of water can not move, located below unconfined aquifers, above and below confined aquifers. Also known as a confining bed.



Confined aquifer(artesian) :-

- Confined aquifers are those in which an impermeable dirt/rock layer exists that prevents water from seeping into the aquifer from the ground surface located directly above.

Unconfined aquifer (water table aquifer):-

- **Unconfined aquifers** are those into which water seeps from the ground surface directly above the aquifer.

Unconfined aquifers:

- Natural recharge of the unconfined aquifers is mainly due to the downward seepage (or percolation) through the unsaturated zone of the excess water over passing the field capacity of the soil. Recharge can also occur through upward seepage (leakage) from underlying aquifers.

Confined aquifers:

- A regional confined aquifer is directly recharged by precipitation in the area where the aquifer crops out, having the same characteristics as an unconfined aquifer.

INFILTRATION GALLERIES:

- Infiltration galleries is a conduit,
- Built in permeable earth, for collecting ground water.

- We have seen earlier that ground water travels towards lakes, rivers or streams. This water which is travelling can be intercepted by digging a trench or by constructing a tunnel with holes on sides at right angle to the direction of flow.
- These underground tunnel used for tapping underground water near rivers, lakes or streams are called “INFILTRATION GALLERIES”.
- These are also known as Horizontal walls.

Example:-

- Infiltration galleries can be used to collect sub-surface flow from rivers. Water is taken to a collective well, or sump, and then pumped to a storage tank.
- Infiltration galleries vary in size, from a few meters feeding into spring box, to many kilometers forming an integral part of urban water supply.

Construction of galleries:

- To ensure a continuous supply of water, infiltration galleries should be built in the end of dry season and should be at least one meter under the dry season water table.
- Excavate a trench to at least 1 m below the water table,
- Lay graded gravel on the base of the trench.
- Lay the pipe or drain blocks on top of the gravel. Cover the top and sides with more graded gravel.
- Cap the gravel with an impermeable layer of clay to prevent surface water entering the gallery.

STRATIGRAPHY

Stratigraphy is a branch of geology which studies rock layers (strata) and layering (stratification).

It is primarily used in the study of sedimentary and layered volcanic rocks.

Stratigraphy includes two related subfields:

1. Lithologic stratigraphy or lithostratigraphy,
2. Biologic stratigraphy or biostratigraphy.

Application of stratigraphy was by William Smith in the 1790s and early

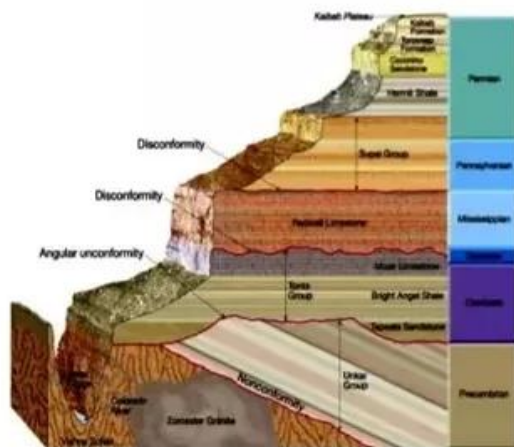
1800s. Smith, known as the "Father of English geology".

Created the first geologic map of England and first recognized the significance of strata or rock layering and the importance of fossil markers for correlating strata.

1) Lithostratigraphy:

Lithostratigraphy, or lithologic stratigraphy, provides the most obvious visible layering. It deals with the physical contrasts in lithology, or rock type. Such layers can occur both vertically— in layering or bedding of varying rock types.

Principles of Stratigraphy



- Superposition
- Original Horizontality
- Lateral Continuity
- Crosscutting Relationships
- Inclusions
- Faunal (biological) Succession
- Incomplete record
- Base-level
- Accommodation
- Preservation Potential
- Cyclicity
- Walther's Law
- Correlation

Lithology:

The **lithology** of a rock unit is a description of its physical characteristics visible at outcrop, in hand or core samples or with low magnification microscopy, such as colour, texture, grain size, or composition.

2) Biostratigraphy:

Biostratigraphy is the branch of stratigraphy which focuses on correlating and assigning relative ages of rock strata by using the fossil assemblages contained within them.

Biologic stratigraphy was based on William Smith's principle of faunal succession, which predated, and was one of the first and most powerful lines of evidence for, biological evolution.

Out crop:

- An **outcrop** or **rocky outcrop** is a visible exposure of bedrock or ancient superficial deposits on the surface of the Earth.
- Outcrops do not cover everywhere on the surface of the earth, these are mostly covered with a thick and thin layer called alluvium or most common language as soil.
- However, in places where the overlying cover is removed through erosion or tectonic uplift, the rock may be exposed, or *crop out*.
- In fact in some areas the soil may spread over for thousands of square km and the bed block may not be visible anywhere.
- As in the mountains and sub- mountains tracts, exposure of rocks may be easily seen forming sides of valley or caps of hills.

- Hence outcrop is simply defined as “An exposure of solid rock on the surface of the rock”.

Strike :

- Strike is a geographic direction given by the line of intersection of a horizontal plane with a bedding plane of a layer of rock.
- It is measured in field with the help of a compass.

Dip:

- It is defined as the max angle of inclination with the horizontal. It is expressed both in terms of degree of inclination and direction of inclination.
- The amount of dip is called angle of inclination, which a bedding plane makes with a horizontal plane.

True Dip:

- when the dip of the layer is measured in a direction that is essentially at right angles to the strike of the particular layer, then It is called TRUE DIP.

Apparent Dip:

- When the dip of the layer is measured in any other direction which is not a right angles to the strike direction is called APPARENT DIP.

FOLDS

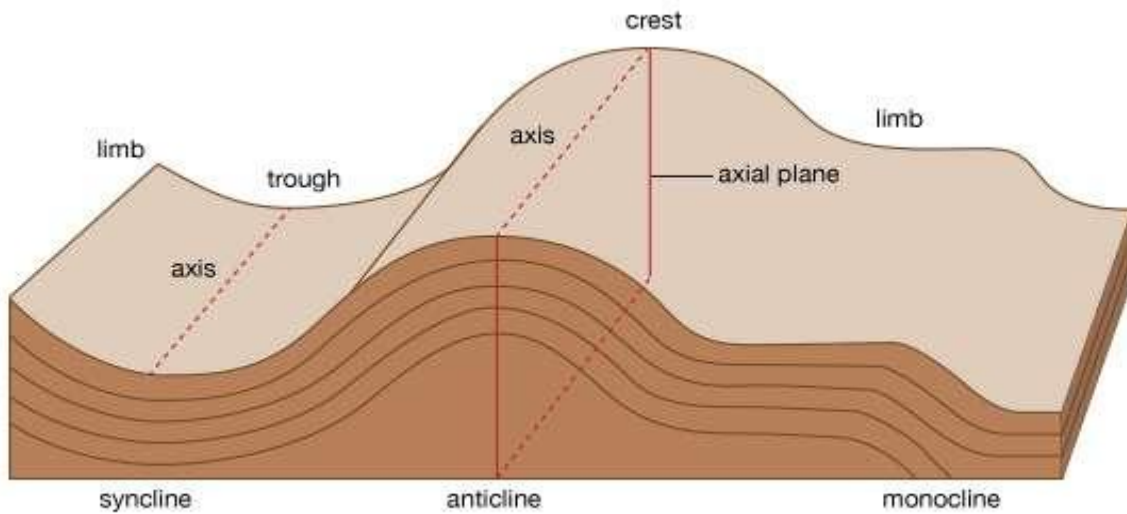
DEFINITION:

- Folds are one of the most common geological structures found in rocks. When a set of horizontal layers are subjected to compressive forces, they bend either upwards or downwards.
- The bends noticed in rocks are called folds.
- Folds are described variously as wavy or arch or curvy types founds in rocks.
- In terms of nature too, folds may occur as single local bends or may occur repeatedly and intricately folded according to the tectonic history of the region.

Types of FOLDS:

Based on different principles, the folds are variously classified on:

1. Symmetrical character.
2. Upward or downward bend.
3. Occurrence of plunge.
4. Bed thickness
5. Behaviour of the fold pattern.



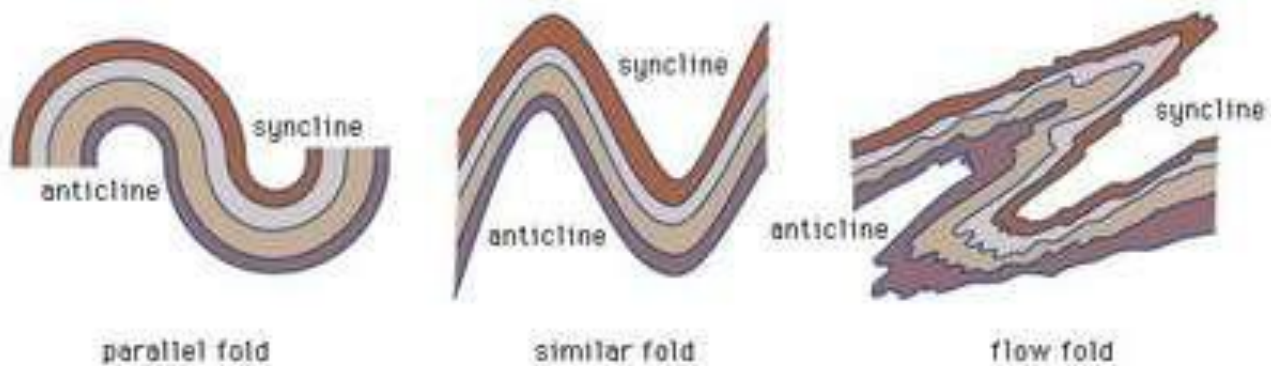
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Anticline and Syncline:

- When beds are bent upwards, the resulting fold is called Anticline. This fold is convex upwards.
- (*Anti*= Opposite, *Cline*= Inclination)
- Syncline is just opposite to anticline on its nature, when the beds are bent downwards the resulting fold is called Syncline.

Symmetrical and Asymmetrical folds:

- When the axial plane divides a fold into two equal halves in such a way that one half is the mirror image of another, then such fold is called Symmetrical fold.
- If the two halves are not mirror images, then the fold is called Asymmetrical fold. IF the compressive forces responsible for folding are not of the same magnitude, asymmetrical folds are formed.
- Open and Closed Folds
- Similar and Parallel Folds



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UNIT-III

STRATIGRAPHY:

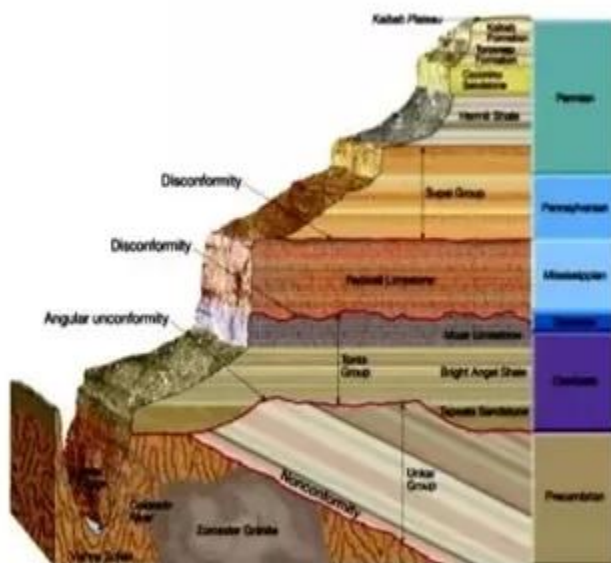
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- **Correlation**

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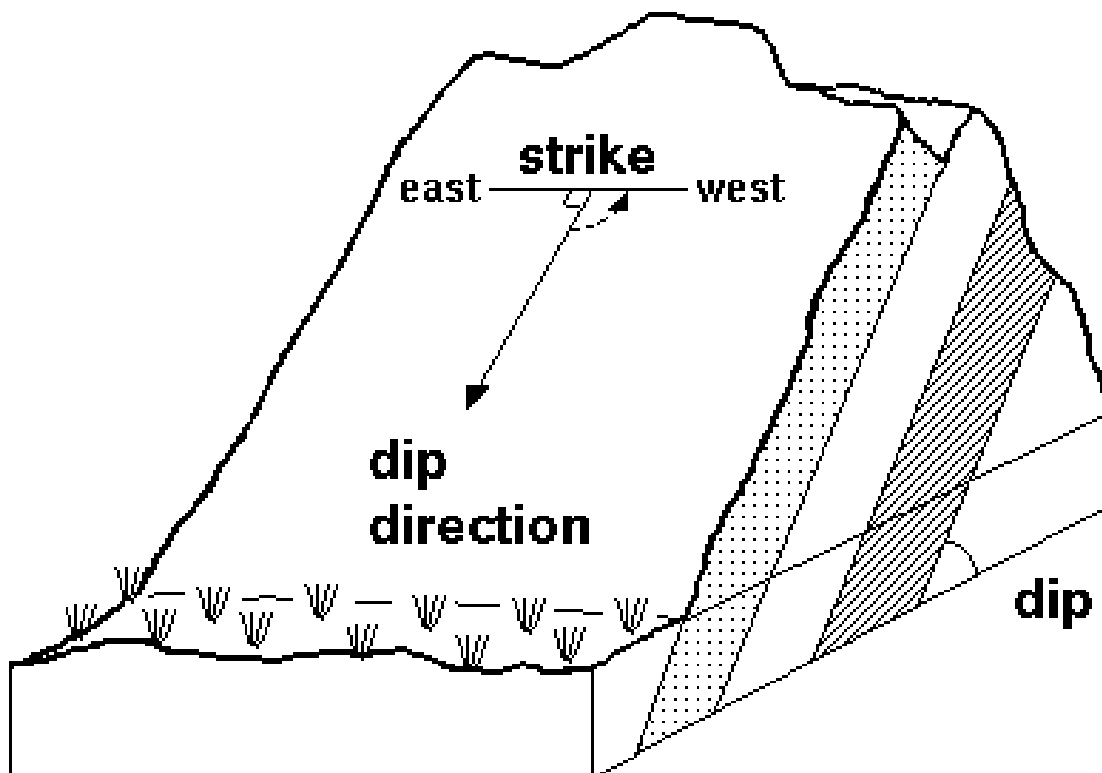
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Apparent Dip:

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UNIT-IV

EARTH QUAKES

DEFINITION:

- A sudden violent shaking of the ground, typically causing great destruction, as a result of movements within the earth's crust or volcanic action.
- A sudden release of energy in the earth's crust or upper mantle, usually caused by movement along a fault plane or by volcanic activity and resulting in the generation of seismic waves which can be destructive.

Seismic Waves

- **Seismic waves** are **waves** of energy that travel through the Earth's layers, and are a result of an **earthquake**, explosion, or a volcano that gives out low-frequency acoustic energy.
- Seismic waves are studied by geophysicists called **seismologists**. Seismic wave fields are recorded by a seismometer, hydrophone (in water), or accelerometer.ncy acoustic energy.
- The propagation velocity of the waves depends on density and elasticity of the medium.
- Velocity tends to increase with depth and ranges from approximately 2 to 8 km/s in the Earth's crust, up to 13 km/s in the deep mantle.

CLASSIFICATION AND CAUSES OF EARTHQUAKE:

Based on depth of their origin, earthquake is described as shallow or intermediate or Deep.

- Earthquake with a focus depth less than 60km are called shallow earthquake.
- If the depth more than 60km but less than 300km, they are called Intermediate earthquake.

- Which have focus depth more than 300km, they are called Deep earthquake.

Based on the causes responsible for their occurrence, earthquakes are described as Tectonic or non Tectonic.

- **Tectonic earthquake** are exclusively due to internal causes, due to disturbances or adjustments of geological formations taking place in the earth's interior, they are less frequent, but more intensive and hence more destructive in nature.
- The **Non Tectonic earthquake** on the other hand, is generally due to external or surfacial causes. This type of earthquake is very frequent, but minor in intensity and generally not destructive in nature.

Types:

Among the many types of seismic waves, one can make a broad distinction between *body waves* and *surface waves*.

- Body waves travel through the interior of the Earth.
- Surface waves travel across the surface. Surface waves decay more slowly with distance than do body waves, which travel in three dimensions.

Includes **Primary** and **Secondary** waves:

Primary waves (P-wave):

- Primary waves are compressional waves that are longitudinal in nature. P waves are pressure waves that travel faster than other waves through the earth to arrive at seismograph stations first, hence the name "Primary".
- These waves can travel through any type of material, including fluids, and can travel at nearly twice the speed of S waves. In air, they take the form of sound waves, hence they travel at the speed of sound. Typical speeds are 330 m/s in air, 1450 m/s in water and about 5000 m/s in granite.

Secondary waves(S-Waves):

- Secondary waves (S-waves) are shear waves that are transverse in nature. Following an earthquake event, S-waves arrive at seismograph stations after the faster-moving P-waves.
- S-waves can travel only through solids, as fluids (liquids and gases) do not support shear stresses. S-waves are slower than P-waves, and speeds are typically around 60% of that of P-waves in any given material.

SEISMIC BELTS AND SHIELD AREAS:

- Seismic belts are those places where earthquakes occur frequently. Shield areas are those places where earthquakes occur either rarely or very mildly.
- Occurrence of an earthquake in a place is an indication of underground instability there.
- Statistics have revealed that nearly 50% of earthquakes have occurred along mountain ridges and 40% of earthquakes along steep coasts.
- The study of recorded earthquakes shows that they take place on land most frequently along two well-defined seismic belts.
 1. *Circum Pacific Belt* which accounts for 68% of earthquake occurrence.
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RICHTER SCALE:

- The **Richter magnitude scale** (also **Richter scale**) assigns a magnitude number to quantify the energy released by an earthquake.

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- In 1935, the seismologists *Charles Francis Richter* and *Beno Gutenberg*, of the California Institute of Technology, developed the (future) Richter magnitude scale, specifically for measuring earthquakes in a given area of study.
- The Richter scale was succeeded in the 1970s by the Moment Magnitude Scale (MMS). This is now the scale used by the United States Geological Survey to estimate magnitudes for all modern large earthquakes.
- An Earthquake of magnitude 5 may cause damage within radius of 8km, but that of magnitude 7 may cause damage in a radius of 80km, and that of 8 over a radius of 250km.

CONSTRUCTION OF BUILDINGS IN SEISMIC AREAS-

PRECAUTIONARY MEASURES:

- Buildings should be Founded on hard bedrock only and never on loose soils or Fractured rocks, this is because loose ground settles due to earthquake vibrations.
- Buildings situated in cuttings on hill slides, near steep slopes always suffer more when an earthquake occurs.
- For large Buildings, raft types of foundations are desirable. Square foundations are more stable.
- Different parts of a building should be well tied together so that the whole structure behaves like a single unit to the Vibrations.
- Only rich cement mortar and reinforced concrete should be used.
- Buildings with irregular shapes with wings, Verandas, Porches and all structures should be avoided.

- Buildings should have RCC roofs and they should be designed not to yield to lateral stress.
- Resonance is the important factor, If the period of vibration of a structure is the same as that of the foundation rock it will collapse because of the resonance effect.

CIVIL ENGINEERING CONSIDERATIONS IN SEISMIC AREAS:

- Seismic areas are the places which experience earthquakes frequently.
- Therefore constructions in seismic and a seismic areas differ in terms of their design.
- So a civil engineer should only think of making his constructions immune to earthquakes.

It is possible to find the difficulties by predicting some crucial factors:

- a. The exact place of earthquake occurrence.
- b. II.The duration of the earthquake.
- c. III.The direction of movement of the ground at the time of earthquake.

BASICS OF A DAM:

- a. In a way ,the success of dam is not only related to its own safety and stability but also depends on the success of associated reservoirs.
- b. If in a dam construction the dam stands firmly and the reservoir leaks , then the dam is to be treated as a failure because the purpose for which it has been constructed has not been served.
- c. Therefore care is needed in construction of dam and reservoir.

The important geological considerations in the selection of dam site are as follows:

The geological considerations are :

1. Narrow river valley
2. Occurrence of bed rock at a shallow depth
3. Competent rocks to offer a stable foundations

BEDROCK AT SHALLOW DEPTH

- a. To ensure the stability and safety of a dam, the dam has to rest on very strong and very stable rocks(i.e bedrock).
- b. If the bedrock is available at shallow depth then the cost for the foundation of dam is less.
- c. If in any case the bedrock is at greater depth then the cost is high as it needs lot of excavation and concrete filling.
- d. Therefore to ensure the bedrock has actually reached bores should be drilled for 20' or more through the rocks.
- e. Competent rocks for safe foundation.
- f. If igneous rocks occur at the site selected for dam, then they will offer a safe foundation.
- g. If sedimentary rocks occur like shale, poorly cemented sandstones and limestone then they shall naturally be undesirable to serve as foundation rocks.
- h. In metamorphic rocks the rocks like marbles, like quartzites can bear a granulose structure and they are not porous and permeable, therefore metamorphic rocks are unsuitable for dam sites.
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DAMS AND RESERVOIRS AND THEIR

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

DAMS

- A dam is a barrier that impounds water or underground streams.
- Generate electric power.
- Manage or prevent water flow into specific land regions.
- Evenly distributed between locations.

BENEFITS OF DAMS

1. Power generation
2. Water supply
3. Stabilize water flow / irrigation
4. Flood prevention
5. Land reclamation
6. Recreation and aquatic beauty
7. Navigation

DISADVANTAGES OF DAMS

1. Seepage and evaporation
2. Groundwater table effects
3. Sedimentation behind dams
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The dams constructed across the rivers create artificial lakes which are known as reservoirs.

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3. Traps sediments
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Nasa geophysicist Dr. Benjamin Fong Chao found evidence that large dams cause changes to the earth's rotation, because of the shift of water weight from oceans to reservoirs. Because of the number of dams which have been built, the Earth's daily rotation has apparently sped up by eight-millionths of a second since the 1950s. Chao said it is the first time human activity has been shown to have a measurable effect on the Earth's motion.

EXAMPLES OF GEO HAZARDS

Geo hazard includes :

1. Earthquakes
2. Landslides
3. Tsunamis
4. Avalanches
5. Floods
6. Volcanoes

EARTHQUAKES

- a. Earthquake is a sudden vibration that occurs on the surface of the earth with a release of large amount of energy.
- b. The point of originating of earthquake is known as focus or hypocenter
- c. The point on the earth's surface which lies vertically above the focus is known as epicentre.

Classification of earthquakes

Based on their mode of origin :

Earthquakes occurring due to surface causes due to volcanic causes due to tectonic causes.

Based on depth of focus:

- a. Shallow focus earthquakes(<55km)
- b. Intermediate focus earthquakes(55-300km)
- c. Deep focus earthquakes(300-650km)

CAUSES OF EARTHQUAKES

Earthquakes occur due to:

1. Tsunamis
2. Occurrence of landslides
3. Avalanches
4. Volcanic eruptions
5. Man-made explosions
6. Meteorites

LANDSLIDES

If a mass of earth or rock moves along a definite zone or surface the failure is called as Landslide.

The foremost force responsible for the occurrence of landslide is due to the action of gravity.

CAUSES OF LANDSLIDES

Natural causes

1. Due to ground water pressure
2. Due to melting of glaciers and heavy rainfall
3. Due to volcanic eruptions.

□ Human causes

1. Due to heavy machinery equipments and traffic flow.
2. Blasting of rocks weakens the stability of slope

TSUNAMI

1. A Tsunami is a giant wave (or series of waves) created by an undersea earthquake, volcanic eruption and landslide.
2. Tsunamis are often called as tidal waves but this is not accurate description because tides have little effect on giant tsunami waves.

VOLCANOES

A Volcano is a vent (hole) in the earth's crust through which lava, steam, ashes and etc., are expelled.

AVALANCHES

1. An Avalanche is any amount of snow sliding down a mountainside.
2. Another term for avalanche is snow slide.

FLOODS

A Flood is an overflow of water that submerges the land which is usually dry.

EFFECTS OF GEOHAZARDS

1. A great loss of plant, human and animal life.
2. Destruction and damage to the buildings.
3. Disruption of civic facilities like electricity, water, telephones.
4. Loss of communication such as road, rail, water and air transportation.
5. Increase in infectious diseases due to the pollution created by this hazards.

WATER TIGHTNESS AND INFLUENCING FACTORS WATER-TIGHTNESS:

It is the process which is implemented after the effect of weathering in order to preventing the leakage of water through fractured rock and bed rocks which are located below the surface and covered with loose soil.

- a. If the dam is constructed without proper water-tightening, the impounded water in the reservoir covers large area and percolates over it.
- b. Due to higher level of the water in reservoir, hydrostatic pressure is formed, which makes the leakage of water more effective on sides and floor of the reservoir.

INFLUENCING FACTORS:

- 1. Buried river channels
- 2. Influence of rock type
- 3. Influence of geological structures
- 4. Scope of preventing leakage
- 5. Influence of water table.

GEOLOGICAL FACTORS EFFECTING WATERTIGHTNESS CONTENTS:

- 1. Water tightness introduction
- 2. Factors affecting water tightness
- 3. Factors affecting life of a reservoir

WATER TIGHTNESS:

Water at the site of reservoir and dam tends to percolate to underground through fractures and voids, this leakage may results in decrease in water level at reservoir so a reservoir must be made with sufficient water tightness.

- Factors effecting water tightness
- Buried river channel
- Types of rocks
- Geological structures
- Water table
- Presence of impermeable or permeable layer on the surface

BURIED RIVER CHANNEL:

This is generally present as a glaciers below the surfaces it may not decrease the water tightness.

ROCK TYPE:

- Generally faults and fractures present in igneous and metamorphic rocks so rock used in construction of reservoir should have less fractures
- Geological structures, water table and some other factors may not have much effect as above.

ELECTRICAL METHODS

INDEX :

- Electro resistivity method.
- Electromagnetic method.
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ELECTRO RESISTIVITY METHOD:

- The formation of electrical resistivities of sub-surface differ from one another if they are homogenous.
- These resistivities are studied by means of resistivity method.
- They are two types of resistivity investigations
 - 1) Profiling
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ELECTRO MAGNETIC METHOD :

In the principles of electromagnetic field an alternating magnetic field is formed in ground with help of an appropriate source. The formed electromagnetic field induces eddy currents in conductive ore bodies in sub-surface and these produces secondary electromagnetic fields. The magnetic element of secondary electromagnetic field is examined at surface to find underground ore deposits.

Important electromagnetic methods are

- 1) Dip angle method
- 2) Enslin method
- 3) Sling ram method
- 4) Sandburg method.
- 5) Turram method.

SELF POTENTIAL METHOD :

Self potential method is also known as spontaneous polarization method which is based on electrical potentials naturally present in earth. Pyrite , Pyrrhotiteans sulphideores which indicates spontaneous polarization. Apart from these graphite produces strong SP method.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRO RESSISTIVITY METHODS :

- In the exploration of ground water.
- Exploration of petroleum.
- Finding highly conductive bodies such as sulphide ore bodies and graphite.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRO MAGNETIC METHOD :

- Finding ore deposits.
- Exploration of soil.
- Ground water studies where overburden is of high resistivity.

GROUND SUBSIDENCE

INTRODUCTION:

- Small scale vertical movements
- Causing substantial economic losses and societal disruption
- Human induced and natural
- Occurring on time-scales of a few decades

SUBSIDENCE AND UPLIFT:

- Subsidence: The lowering of the land surface due to
 - Creation of cavities in solid rock by mining, combustion of coal or dissolution of soluble material
 - The removal of fluids (water or oil) from the pore spaces of unconsolidated or poorly consolidated sediments
- Uplift: changed land conditions due to expansive soils

SUBSIDENCE:

- Underground mining is the most widespread cause of subsidence by direct removal
- Removal causing changes in local or regional groundwater system either by natural or anthropogenic causes

ADVANTAGE SOF SELF POTENTIAL METHOD:

- Exploration of economic mineral deposits.
- Finding areas of corrosion.
- In bore holes of investigation.

DAMS

Dam is a solid barrier constructed at a suitable location across a river valley to store flowing water and used for

- Hydropower
- Irrigation
- Water for domestic consumption
- For drought and flood control
- Other additional utilization is to develop fisheries

TYPES OF DAMS

There are four types of dams. They are

- Arch dam
- Gravity dam
- Buttress dam
- Earth dam

ARCH DAM:

- This type of dams are concrete dams which are curved or convex upstream in plan. It is dependent upon the arch action for its strength.
- Arch dam is thinner and requires less material for construction compared to other dams.
- Arch dams are built across narrow deep river gorges.

GRAVITY DAM

- Gravity dams are the dams which resist the horizontal thrust of water entirely by their own weight
- they use their weight to hold back the water in the reservoir
- Made of earth or rock fill or concrete

BUTTRESS DAM

- Buttress dams are dams in which the face is held up by a series of supports.
- Buttress dams can take many forms – the face may be flat or curved.
- Usually buttress dams are made of concrete and may be reinforced with steel bars.

EARTH DAMS

- Earth dams are trapezoidal in shape
- Earth dams are constructed where the foundation rocks are weak to support
- Earth dams are relatively smaller in height and broad at the base
- They are mainly built with clay, sand and gravel. Hence they are also known as Earth fill dam or Rock fill dam

DEFINITION:

- A sudden violent shaking of the ground, typically causing great destruction, as a result of movements within the earth's crust or volcanic action.
- A sudden release of energy in the earth's crust or upper mantle, usually caused by movement along a fault plane or by volcanic activity and resulting in the generation of seismic waves which can be destructive.

Seismic Waves

- **Seismic waves** are **waves** of energy that travel through the Earth's layers, and are a result of an **earthquake**, explosion, or a volcano that gives out low-frequency acoustic energy.
- Seismic waves are studied by geophysicists called **seismologists**. Seismic wave fields are recorded by a seismometer, hydrophone (in water), or accelerometer.ncy acoustic energy.
- The propagation velocity of the waves depends on density and elasticity of the medium.
- Velocity tends to increase with depth and ranges from approximately 2 to 8 km/s in the Earth's crust, up to 13 km/s in the deep mantle.

CLASSIFICATION AND CAUSES OF EARTHQUAKE:

Based on depth of their origin, earthquake is described as shallow or intermediate or Deep.

- Earthquake with a focus depth less than 60km are called shallow earthquake.
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Primary waves (P-wave):

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- These waves can travel through any type of material, including fluids, and can travel at nearly twice the speed of S waves. In air, they take the form of sound waves, hence they travel at the speed of sound. Typical speeds are 330 m/s in air, 1450 m/s in water and about 5000 m/s in granite.

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CONSTRUCTION OF BUILDINGS IN SEISMIC AREAS-

PRECAUTIONARY MEASURES:

- Buildings should be Founded on hard bedrock only and never on loose soils or Fractured rocks, this is because loose ground settles due to earthquake vibrations.
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INTRODUCTION:

- Small scale vertical movements
- Causing substantial economic losses and societal disruption
- Human induced and natural
- Occurring on time-scales of a few decades

SUBSIDENCE AND UPLIFT:

- Subsidence: The lowering of the land surface due to
 - Creation of cavities in solid rock by mining, combustion of coal or dissolution of soluble material
 - The removal of fluids (water or oil) from the pore spaces of unconsolidated or poorly consolidated sediments
- Uplift: changed land conditions due to expansive soils

SUBSIDENCE:

- Underground mining is the most widespread cause of subsidence by direct removal
- Removal causing changes in local or regional groundwater system either by natural or anthropogenic causes

ADVANTAGE OF SELF POTENTIAL METHOD:

- Exploration of economic mineral deposits.
- Finding areas of corrosion.
- In bore holes of investigation.

FOLDS

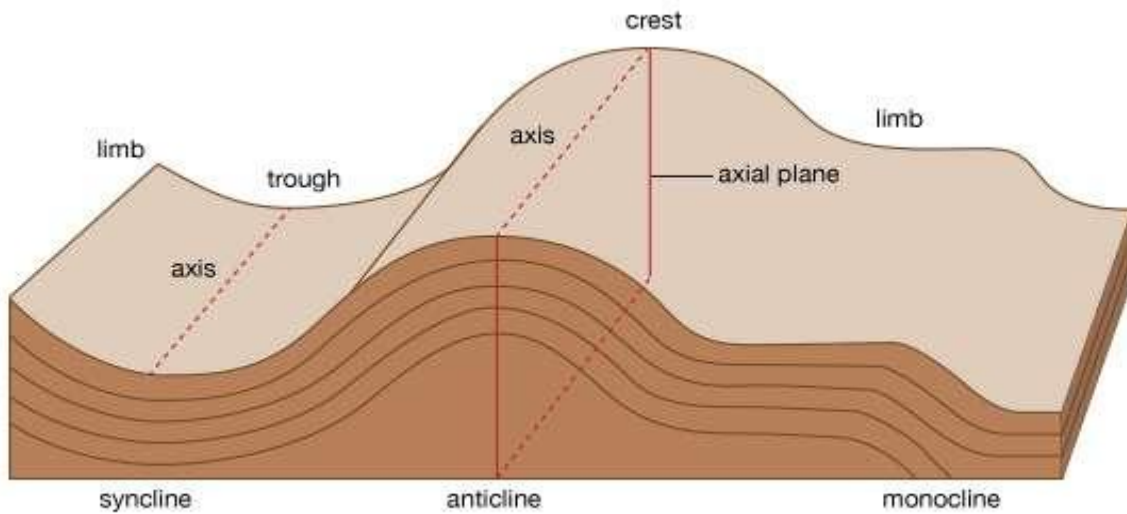
DEFINITION:

- Folds are one of the most common geological structures found in rocks. When a set of horizontal layers are subjected to compressive forces, they bend either upwards or downwards.
- The bends noticed in rocks are called folds.
- Folds are described variously as wavy or arch or curvy types founds in rocks.
- In terms of nature too, folds may occur as single local bends or may occur repeatedly and intricately folded according to the tectonic history of the region.

Types of FOLDS:

Based on different principles, the folds are variously classified on:

4. Symmetrical character.
5. Upward or downward bend.
6. Occurrence of plunge.
6. Bed thickness
7. Behaviour of the fold pattern.

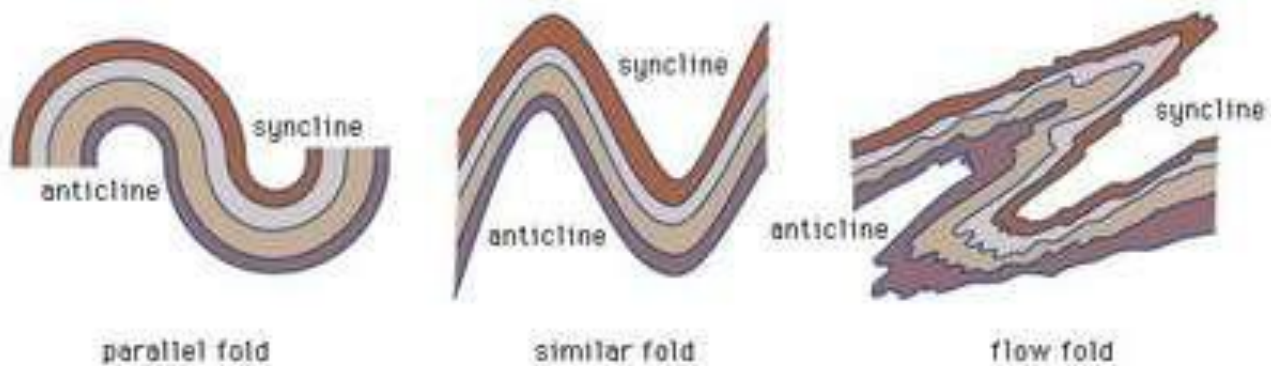


Anticline and Syncline:

- When beds are bent upwards, the resulting fold is called Anticline. This fold is convex upwards.
- (*Anti*= Opposite, *Cline*= Inclination)
- Syncline is just opposite to anticline on its nature, when the beds are bent downwards the resulting fold is called Syncline.

Symmetrical and Asymmetrical folds:

- When the axial plane divides a fold into two equal halves in such a way that one half is the mirror image of another, then such fold is called Symmetrical fold.
- If the two halves are not mirror images, then the fold is called Asymmetrical fold. IF the compressive forces responsible for folding are not of the same magnitude, asymmetrical folds are formed.
- Open and Closed Folds
- Similar and Parallel Folds



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Application of stratigraphy was by William Smith in the 1790s and early 1800s.

Smith, known as the "Father of English geology".

Created the first geologic map of England and first recognized the significance of strata or rock layering and the importance of fossil markers for correlating strata.

2) **Lithostratigraphy:**

Lithostratigraphy, or lithologic stratigraphy, provides the most obvious visible layering. It deals with the physical contrasts in lithology, or rock type. Such layers can occur both vertically— in layering or bedding of varying rock types.

Lithology:

The **lithology** of a rock unit is a description of its physical characteristics visible at outcrop, in hand or core samples or with low magnification microscopy, such as color, texture, grain size, or composition.

2) **Biostratigraphy:**

Biostratigraphy is the branch of stratigraphy which focuses on correlating and assigning relative ages of rock strata by using the fossil assemblages contained within them.

Biologic stratigraphy was based on William Smith's principle of faunal succession, which predated, and was one of the first and most powerful lines of evidence for, biological evolution.

Out crop:

- An **outcrop** or **rocky outcrop** is a visible exposure of bedrock or ancient superficial deposits on the surface of the Earth.

Outcrop

- Any Geological formation exposed on the surface is called an outcrop.



- Outcrops do not cover everywhere on the surface of the earth, these are mostly covered with a thick and thin layer called alluvium or most common language as soil.
- However, in places where the overlying cover is removed through erosion or tectonic uplift, the rock may be exposed, or *crop out*.
- In fact in some areas the soil may spread over for thousands of square km and the bed block may not be visible anywhere.
- As in the mountains and sub- mountains tracts, exposure of rocks may be easily seen forming sides of valley or caps of hills.
- Hence outcrop is simply defined as “An exposure of solid rock on the surface of the rock”.

Strike :

- Strike is a geographic direction given by the line of intersection of a horizontal plane with a bedding plane of a layer of rock.
- It is measured in field with the help of a compass.

Dip:

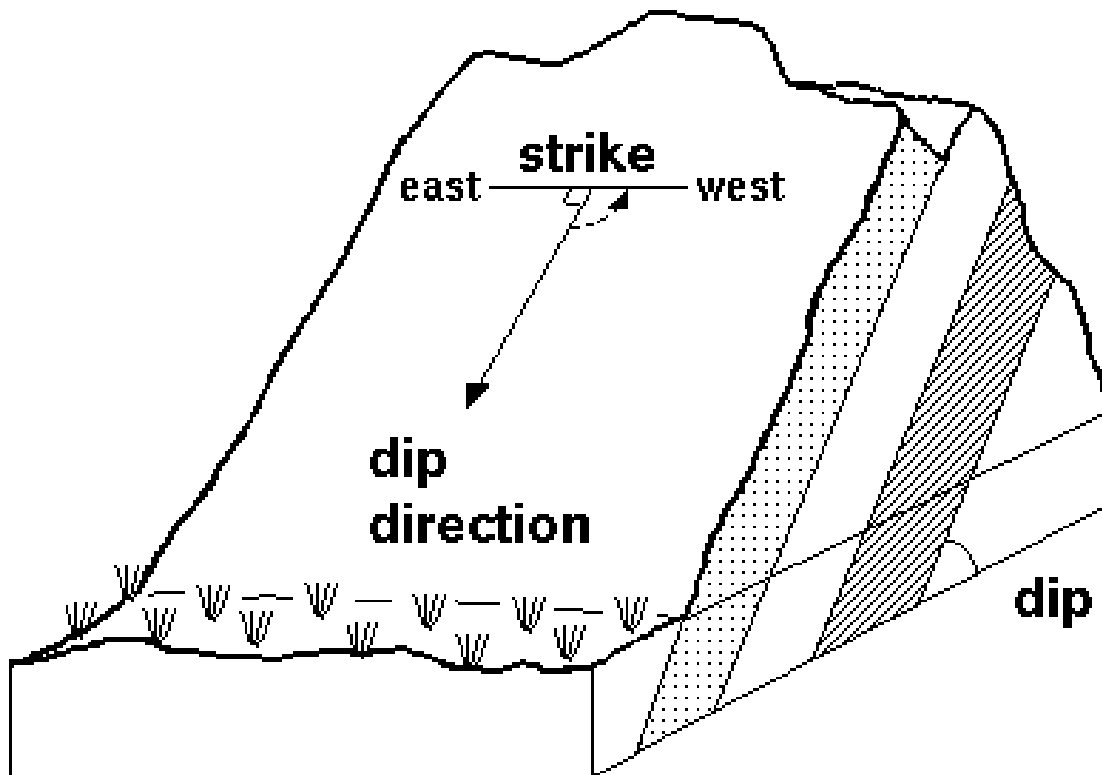
- It is defined as the max angle of inclination with the horizontal. It is expressed both in terms of degree of inclination and direction of inclination.
- The amount of dip is called angle of inclination, which a bedding plane makes with a horizontal plane.

True Dip:

- when the dip of the layer is measured in a direction that is essentially at right angles to the strike of the particular layer, then It is called TRUE DIP.

Apparent Dip:

- When the dip of the layer is measured in any other direction which is not a right angles to the strike direction is called APPARENT DIP.



UNIT-V

TUNNELS

DEFINITION:

- A sudden violent shaking of the ground, typically causing great destruction, as a result of movements within the earth's crust or volcanic action.
- A sudden release of energy in the earth's crust or upper mantle, usually caused by movement along a fault plane or by volcanic activity and resulting in the generation of seismic waves which can be destructive.

Seismic Waves

- **Seismic waves** are **waves** of energy that travel through the Earth's layers, and are a result of an **earthquake**, explosion, or a volcano that gives out low-frequency acoustic energy.
- Seismic waves are studied by geophysicists called **seismologists**. Seismic wave fields are recorded by a seismometer, hydrophone (in water), or accelerometer.ncy acoustic energy.
- The propagation velocity of the waves depends on density and elasticity of the medium.
- Velocity tends to increase with depth and ranges from approximately 2 to 8 km/s in the Earth's crust, up to 13 km/s in the deep mantle.

CLASSIFICATION AND CAUSES OF EARTHQUAKE:

Based on depth of their origin, earthquake is described as shallow or intermediate or Deep.

- Earthquake with a focus depth less than 60km are called shallow earthquake.
- If the depth more than 60km but less than 300km, they are called Intermediate earthquake.

- Which have focus depth more than 300km, they are called Deep earthquake.

Based on the causes responsible for their occurrence, earthquakes are described as Tectonic or non Tectonic.

- **Tectonic earthquake** are exclusively due to internal causes, due to disturbances or adjustments of geological formations taking place in the earth's interior, they are less frequent, but more intensive and hence more destructive in nature.
- The **Non Tectonic earthquake** on the other hand, is generally due to external or surfacial causes. This type of earthquake is very frequent, but minor in intensity and generally not destructive in nature.

Types:

Among the many types of seismic waves, one can make a broad distinction between *body waves* and *surface waves*.

- Body waves travel through the interior of the Earth.
- Surface waves travel across the surface. Surface waves decay more slowly with distance than do body waves, which travel in three dimensions.

Includes **Primary** and **Secondary** waves:

Primary waves (P-wave):

- Primary waves are compressional waves that are longitudinal in nature. P waves are pressure waves that travel faster than other waves through the earth to arrive at seismograph stations first, hence the name "Primary".
- These waves can travel through any type of material, including fluids, and can travel at nearly twice the speed of S waves. In air, they take the form of sound waves, hence they travel at the speed of sound. Typical speeds are 330 m/s in air, 1450 m/s in water and about 5000 m/s in granite.

Secondary waves(S-Waves):

- Secondary waves (S-waves) are shear waves that are transverse in nature. Following an earthquake event, S-waves arrive at seismograph stations after the faster-moving P-waves.
- S-waves can travel only through solids, as fluids (liquids and gases) do not support shear stresses. S-waves are slower than P-waves, and speeds are typically around 60% of that of P-waves in any given material.

SEISMIC BELTS AND SHIELD AREAS:

- Seismic belts are those places where earthquakes occur frequently. Shield areas are those places where earthquakes occur either rarely or very mildly.
 - Occurrence of an earthquake in a place is an indication of underground instability there.
 - Statistics have revealed that nearly 50% of earthquakes have occurred along mountain ridges and 40% of earthquakes along steep coasts.
 - The study of recorded earthquakes shows that they take place on land most frequently along two well-defined seismic belts.
5. *Circum Pacific Belt* which accounts for 68% of earthquake occurrence.
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- An Earthquake of magnitude 5 may cause damage within radius of 8km, but that of magnitude 7 may cause damage in a radius of 80km, and that of 8 over a radius of 250km.

CONSTRUCTION OF BUILDINGS IN SEISMIC AREAS-

PRECAUTIONARY MEASURES:

- Buildings should be Founded on hard bedrock only and never on loose soils or Fractured rocks, this is because loose ground settles due to earthquake vibrations.
- Buildings situated in cuttings on hill slides, near steep slopes always suffer more when an earthquake occurs.
- For large Buildings, raft types of foundations are desirable. Square foundations are more stable.
- Different parts of a building should be well tied together so that the whole structure behaves like a single unit to the Vibrations.
- Only rich cement mortar and reinforced concrete should be used.
- Buildings with irregular shapes with wings, Verandas, Porches and all structures should be avoided.

- Buildings should have RCC roofs and they should be designed not to yield to lateral stress.
- Resonance is the important factor, If the period of vibration of a structure is the same as that of the foundation rock it will collapse because of the resonance effect.

CIVIL ENGINEERING CONSIDERATIONS IN SEISMIC AREAS:

- Seismic areas are the places which experience earthquakes frequently.
- Therefore constructions in seismic and a seismic areas differ in terms of their design.
- So a civil engineer should only think of making his constructions immune to earthquakes.

It is possible to find the difficulties by predicting some crucial factors:

- a. The exact place of earthquake occurrence.
- f. II.The duration of the earthquake.
- g. III.The direction of movement of the ground at the time of earthquake.

BASICS OF A DAM:

- g. In a way ,the success of dam is not only related to its own safety and stability but also depends on the success of associated reservoirs.
- h. If in a dam construction the dam stands firmly and the reservoir leaks , then the dam is to be treated as a failure because the purpose for which it has been constructed has not been served.
- i. Therefore care is needed in construction of dam and reservoir.

The important geological considerations in the selection of dam site are as follows:

The geological considerations are :

7. Narrow river valley
8. Occurrence of bed rock at a shallow depth
9. Competent rocks to offer a stable foundations

BEDROCK AT SHALLOW DEPTH

- s. To ensure the stability and safety of a dam, the dam has to rest on very strong and very stable rocks(i.e bedrock).
- t. If the bedrock is available at shallow depth then the cost for the foundation of dam is less.
- u. If in any case the bedrock is at greater depth then the cost is high as it needs lot of excavation and concrete filling.
- v. Therefore to ensure the bedrock has actually reached bores should be drilled for 20' or more through the rocks.
- w. Competent rocks for safe foundation.
- x. If igneous rocks occur at the site selected for dam, then they will offer a safe foundation.
- y. If sedimentary rocks occur like shale, poorly cemented sandstones and limestone then they shall naturally be undesirable to serve as foundation rocks.
- z. In metamorphic rocks the rocks like marbles, like quartzites can bear a granulose structure and they are not porous and permeable, therefore metamorphic rocks are unsuitable for dam sites.

DAMS AND RESERVOIRS AND THEIR

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

DAMS

- A dam is a barrier that impounds water or underground streams.
- Generate electric power.
- Manage or prevent water flow into specific land regions.
- Evenly distributed between locations.

BENEFITS OF DAMS

15. Power generation
16. Water supply
17. Stabilize water flow / irrigation
18. Flood prevention
19. Land reclamation
20. Recreation and aquatic beauty
21. Navigation

DISADVANTAGES OF DAMS

11. Seepage and evaporation
12. Groundwater table effects
13. Sedimentation behind dams
14. Erosion downstream by sediment-starved waters
15. Clogging of rivers by side-canyon floods

RESERVOIR

The dams constructed across the rivers create artificial lakes which are known as reservoirs.

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF DAMS

27. Biological, chemical and physical properties of rivers
28. Blocks fish migrations
29. Traps sediments
30. Changes in temperature, chemical composition, dissolved oxygen levels and the physical properties of a reservoir are often not suitable to the aquatic plants and animals.
31. Reservoirs often host non-native and invasive species (e.g. snails, algae, predatory fish)
32. Species in the area
33. Water quality
34. Fertility of the land
35. Problems of pollution
36. Social impacts
37. Soil Erosion
38. Species Extinction
39. Spread of Disease

CHANGES TO EARTH'S ROTATION

Nasa geophysicist Dr. Benjamin Fong Chao found evidence that large dams cause changes to the earth's rotation, because of the shift of water weight from oceans to reservoirs. Because of the number of dams which have been built, the Earth's daily rotation has apparently sped up by eight-millionths of a second since the 1950s. Chao said it is the first time human activity has been shown to have a measurable effect on the Earth's motion.

EXAMPLES OF GEO HAZARDS

Geo hazard includes :

- 13. Earthquakes
- 14. Landslides
- 15. Tsunamis
- 16. Avalanches
- 17. Floods
- 18. Volcanoes

EARTHQUAKES

- g. Earthquake is a sudden vibration that occurs on the surface of the earth with a release of large amount of energy.
- h. The point of originating of earthquake is known as focus or hypocenter
- i. The point on the earth's surface which lies vertically above the focus is known as epicentre.

Classification of earthquakes

Based on their mode of origin :

Earthquakes occurring due to surface causes due to volcanic causes due to tectonic causes.

Based on depth of focus:

- g. Shallow focus earthquakes(<55km)
- h. Intermediate focus earthquakes(55-300km)
- i. Deep focus earthquakes(300-650km)

CAUSES OF EARTHQUAKES

Earthquakes occur due to:

- 13. Tsunamis
- 14. Occurrence of landslides
- 15. Avalanches
- 16. Volcanic eruptions
- 17. Man-made explosions
- 18. Meteorites

LANDSLIDES

If a mass of earth or rock moves along a definite zone or surface the failure is called as Landslide.

The foremost force responsible for the occurrence of landslide is due to the action of gravity.

CAUSES OF LANDSLIDES

Natural causes

- 7. Due to ground water pressure
- 8. Due to melting of glaciers and heavy rainfall
- 9. Due to volcanic eruptions.

□ Human causes

1. Due to heavy machinery equipments and traffic flow.
2. Blasting of rocks weakens the stability of slope

TSUNAMI

5. A Tsunami is a giant wave (or series of waves) created by an undersea earthquake, volcanic eruption and landslide.
6. Tsunamis are often called as tidal waves but this is not accurate description because tides have little effect on giant tsunami waves.

VOLCANOES

A Volcano is a vent (hole) in the earth's crust through which lava, steam, ashes and etc., are expelled.

AVALANCHES

5. An Avalanche is any amount of snow sliding down a mountainside.
6. Another term for avalanche is snow slide.

FLOODS

A Flood is an overflow of water that submerges the land which is usually dry.

EFFECTS OF GEOHAZARDS

11. A great loss of plant, human and animal life.
12. Destruction and damage to the buildings.
13. Disruption of civic facilities like electricity, water, telephones.
14. Loss of communication such as road, rail, water and air transportation.
15. Increase in infectious diseases due to the pollution created by this hazards.

WATER TIGHTNESS AND INFLUENCING FACTORS WATER-TIGHTNESS:

It is the process which is implemented after the effect of weathering in order to preventing the leakage of water through fractured rock and bed rocks which are located below the surface and covered with loose soil.

- e. If the dam is constructed without proper water-tightening, the impounded water in the reservoir covers large area and percolates over it.
- f. Due to higher level of the water in reservoir, hydrostatic pressure is formed, which makes the leakage of water more effective on sides and floor of the reservoir.

INFLUENCING FACTORS:

- 11. Buried river channels
- 12. Influence of rock type
- 13. Influence of geological structures
- 14. Scope of preventing leakage
- 15. Influence of water table.

GEOLOGICAL FACTORS EFFECTING WATERTIGHTNESS CONTENTS:

- 7. Water tightness introduction
- 8. Factors affecting water tightness
- 9. Factors affecting life of a reservoir

WATER TIGHTNESS:

Water at the site of reservoir and dam tends to percolate to underground through fractures and voids, this leakage may results in decrease in water level at reservoir so a reservoir must be made with sufficient water tightness.

- Factors effecting water tightness
- Buried river channel
- Types of rocks
- Geological structures
- Water table
- Presence of impermeable or permeable layer on the surface

BURIED RIVER CHANNEL:

This is generally present as a glaciers below the surfaces it may not decrease the water tightness.

ROCK TYPE:

- Generally faults and fractures present in igneous and metamorphic rocks so rock used in construction of reservoir should have less fractures
- Geological structures, water table and some other factors may not have much effect as above.

ELECTRICAL METHODS

INDEX :

- Electro resistivity method.
- Electromagnetic method.
- Self potential method.

ELECTRO RESISTIVITY METHOD:

- The formation of electrical resistivities of sub-surface differ from one another if they are homogenous.
- These resistivities are studied by means of resistivity method.
- They are two types of resistivity investigations

1) Profiling

2) Sounding

ELECTRO MAGNETIC METHOD :

In the principles of electromagnetic field an alternating magnetic field is formed in ground with help of an appropriate source. The formed electromagnetic field induces eddy currents in conductive ore bodies in sub-surface and these produces secondary electromagnetic fields. The magnetic element of secondary electromagnetic field is examined at surface to find underground ore deposits.

Important electromagnetic methods are

- 11) Dip angle method
- 12) Enslin method
- 13) Sling ram method
- 14) Sandburg method.
- 15) Turram method.

SELF POTENTIAL METHOD :

Self potential method is also known as spontaneous polarization method which is based on electrical potentials naturally present in earth. Pyrite , Pyrrhotiteans sulphide ores which indicate spontaneous polarization. Apart from these graphite produces strong SP method.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRO RESISTIVITY METHODS :

- In the exploration of ground water.
- Exploration of petroleum.
- Finding highly conductive bodies such as sulphide ore bodies and graphite.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRO MAGNETIC METHOD :

- Finding ore deposits.
- Exploration of soil.
- Ground water studies where overburden is of high resistivity.

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DAMS

Dam is a solid barrier constructed at a suitable location across a river valley to store flowing water and used for

- Hydropower
- Irrigation
- Water for domestic consumption
- For drought and flood control
- Other additional utilization is to develop fisheries

TYPES OF DAMS

There are four types of dams. They are

- Arch dam
- Gravity dam
- Buttress dam
- Earth dam

ARCH DAM:

- This type of dams are concrete dams which are curved or convex upstream in plan. It is dependent upon the arch action for its strength.
- Arch dam is thinner and requires less material for construction compared to other dams.
- Arch dams are built across narrow deep river gorges.

GRAVITY DAM

- Gravity dams are the dams which resist the horizontal thrust of water entirely by their own weight
- they use their weight to hold back the water in the reservoir
- Made of earth or rock fill or concrete

BUTTRESS DAM

- Buttress dams are dams in which the face is held up by a series of supports.
- Buttress dams can take many forms – the face may be flat or curved.
- Usually buttress dams are made of concrete and may be reinforced with steel bars.

EARTH DAMS

- Earth dams are trapezoidal in shape
- Earth dams are constructed where the foundation rocks are weak to support
- Earth dams are relatively smaller in height and broad at the base
- They are mainly built with clay, sand and gravel. Hence they are also known as Earth fill dam or Rock fill dam

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LANDSLIDES

If a mass of earth or rock moves along a definite zone or surface the failure is called as Landslide.

The foremost force responsible for the occurrence of landslide is due to the action of gravity.

CAUSES OF LANDSLIDES

Natural causes

- 10. Due to ground water pressure
- 11. Due to melting of glaciers and heavy rainfall
- 12. Due to volcanic eruptions.

□ Human causes

1. Due to heavy machinery equipments and traffic flow.
2. Blasting of rocks weakens the stability of slope

TSUNAMI

7. A Tsunami is a giant wave (or series of waves) created by an undersea earthquake, volcanic eruption and landslide.
8. Tsunamis are often called as tidal waves but this is not accurate description because tides have little effect on giant tsunami waves.

VOLCANOES

A Volcano is a vent (hole) in the earth's crust through which lava, steam, ashes and etc., are expelled.

AVALANCHES

7. An Avalanche is any amount of snow sliding down a mountainside.
8. Another term for avalanche is snow slide.

FLOODS

A Flood is an overflow of water that submerges the land which is usually dry.

EFFECTS OF GEOHAZARDS

16. A great loss of plant, human and animal life.
17. Destruction and damage to the buildings.
18. Disruption of civic facilities like electricity, water, telephones.
19. Loss of communication such as road, rail, water and air transportation.
20. Increase in infectious diseases due to the pollution created by this hazards.

WATER TIGHTNESS AND INFLUENCING FACTORS WATER-TIGHTNESS:

It is the process which is implemented after the effect of weathering in order to preventing the leakage of water through fractured rock and bed rocks which are located below the surface and covered with loose soil.

- g. If the dam is constructed without proper water-tightening, the impounded water in the reservoir covers large area and percolates over it.
- h. Due to higher level of the water in reservoir, hydrostatic pressure is formed, which makes the leakage of water more effective on sides and floor of the reservoir.

INFLUENCING FACTORS:

- 16. Buried river channels
- 17. Influence of rock type
- 18. Influence of geological structures
- 19. Scope of preventing leakage
- 20. Influence of water table.

GEOLOGICAL FACTORS EFFECTING WATERTIGHTNESS CONTENTS:

- 10. Water tightness introduction
- 11. Factors affecting water tightness
- 12. Factors affecting life of a reservoir

WATER TIGHTNESS:

Water at the site of reservoir and dam tends to percolate to underground through fractures and voids, this leakage may results in decrease in water level at reservoir so a reservoir must be made with sufficient water tightness.

- Factors effecting water tightness
- Buried river channel
- Types of rocks
- Geological structures
- Water table
- Presence of impermeable or permeable layer on the surface

BURIED RIVER CHANNEL:

This is generally present as a glaciers below the surfaces it may not decrease the water tightness.

ROCK TYPE:

- Generally faults and fractures present in igneous and metamorphic rocks so rock used in construction of reservoir should have less fractures
- Geological structures, water table and some other factors may not have much effect as above.

ELECTRICAL METHODS

INDEX :

- Electro resistivity method.
- Electromagnetic method.
- Self potential method.

ELECTRO RESISTIVITY METHOD:

- The formation of electrical resistivities of sub-surface differ from one another if they are homogenous.
- These resistivities are studied by means of resistivity method.
- They are two types of resistivity investigations

1) Profiling

2) Sounding

ELECTRO MAGNETIC METHOD :

In the principles of electromagnetic field an alternating magnetic field is formed in ground with help of an appropriate source. The formed electromagnetic field induces eddy currents in conductive ore bodies in sub-surface and these produces secondary electromagnetic fields. The magnetic element of secondary electromagnetic field is examined at surface to find underground ore deposits.

Important electromagnetic methods are

- 16) Dip angle method
- 17) Enslin method
- 18) Sling ram method
- 19) Sandburg method.
- 20) Turram method.

SELF POTENTIAL METHOD :

Self potential method is also known as spontaneous polarization method which is based on electrical potentials naturally present in earth. Pyrite , Pyrrhotiteans sulphide ores which indicate spontaneous polarization. Apart from these graphite produces strong SP method.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRO RESISTIVITY METHODS :

- In the exploration of ground water.
- Exploration of petroleum.
- Finding highly conductive bodies such as sulphide ore bodies and graphite.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRO MAGNETIC METHOD :

- Finding ore deposits.
- Exploration of soil.
- Ground water studies where overburden is of high resistivity.

GROUND SUBSIDENCE

INTRODUCTION:

- Small scale vertical movements
- Causing substantial economic losses and societal disruption
- Human induced and natural
- Occurring on time-scales of a few decades

SUBSIDENCE AND UPLIFT:

- Subsidence: The lowering of the land surface due to
 - Creation of cavities in solid rock by mining, combustion of coal or dissolution of soluble material
 - The removal of fluids (water or oil) from the pore spaces of unconsolidated or poorly consolidated sediments
- Uplift: changed land conditions due to expansive soils

SUBSIDENCE:

- Underground mining is the most widespread cause of subsidence by direct removal
- Removal causing changes in local or regional groundwater system either by natural or anthropogenic causes

ADVANTAGE SOF SELF POTENTIAL METHOD:

- Exploration of economic mineral deposits.
- Finding areas of corrosion.
- In bore holes of investigation.

DAMS

Dam is a solid barrier constructed at a suitable location across a river valley to store flowing water and used for

- Hydropower
- Irrigation
- Water for domestic consumption
- For drought and flood control
- Other additional utilization is to develop fisheries

TYPES OF DAMS

There are four types of dams. They are

- Arch dam
- Gravity dam
- Buttress dam
- Earth dam

ARCH DAM:

- This type of dams are concrete dams which are curved or convex upstream in plan. It is dependent upon the arch action for its strength.
- Arch dam is thinner and requires less material for construction compared to other dams.
- Arch dams are built across narrow deep river gorges.

GRAVITY DAM

- Gravity dams are the dams which resist the horizontal thrust of water entirely by their own weight
- they use their weight to hold back the water in the reservoir
- Made of earth or rock fill or concrete

BUTTRESS DAM

- Buttress dams are dams in which the face is held up by a series of supports.
- Buttress dams can take many forms – the face may be flat or curved.
- Usually buttress dams are made of concrete and may be reinforced with steel bars.

EARTH DAMS

- Earth dams are trapezoidal in shape
- Earth dams are constructed where the foundation rocks are weak to support
- Earth dams are relatively smaller in height and broad at the base
- They are mainly built with clay, sand and gravel. Hence they are also known as Earth fill dam or Rock fill dam